

# BRITISH AFFAIRS

A QUARTERLY MAGAZINE

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BRITAIN, EUROPE AND THE COMMONWEALTH

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A DECIMAL SYSTEM OF COINAGE  
EUROPEAN COOPERATION IN SPACE RESEARCH  
"FRINCE BENEFITS" AND WELFARE COSTS

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NEW NATIONS AND DEVELOPMENT ISSUES—

*Britain's Colonial Record*

*Cooperative Societies, Community Development*

*Overseas Development Institute, Overseas Visual Aid Center,  
Department of Technical Cooperation*

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IN BRITAIN

*Care of Mental Patients,*

*The New Universities, National Youth Theater,*

*The Post Office Savings Bank*

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BRITISH INFORMATION SERVICES  
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# BRITISH AFFAIRS

Vol. V, No. 4 — Winter 1961

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## British Affairs

This will be the last issue of BRITISH AFFAIRS. As part of a reorganization of British Information Services, BRITISH RECORD appearing twice a month will be offered to former readers.

Readers are asked to fill in the enclosed pre-paid card inviting them to receive the smaller four-page "British Record" which appears twice a month and to be put on the mailing list for pamphlets and reference papers as they appear and which deal with many of the subjects normally covered by British Affairs.

It is the belief of the Editors that the readers of British Affairs will receive material more up-to-date than a quarterly can provide and more closely tailored to their interests. The attached card invites readers to indicate broadly what subjects they want to cover.

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WHEN SIR WINSTON CHURCHILL WAS PRESIDENT



"Oh I understand all these figures, right enough. What we've got to do, gentlemen, is put some — er — humanizing ginger into 'em."



# Board of Trade

The Board of Trade is the government department concerned with Britain's commerce, industry and overseas trade. Actually, the title Board of Trade, though justified historically, is a misnomer. The Department is not a Board; nor does it trade on any considerable scale. Theoretically and historically, it is a Committee of the Privy Council—a successor to many such committees appointed since the early seventeenth century with a line of descent unbroken from the issue of an Order in Council dated 1766. During the Napoleonic Wars “the Committee of the Privy Council for Trade and Foreign Plantations” became known as the Board of Trade and more or less disappeared as a deliberative body. Its last recorded meeting took place on December 23, 1850.

In practice, the Board is similar to other major departments of state. It is staffed by a corps of permanent civil servants and headed by a senior minister of Cabinet rank (in this instance carrying the title of President) who is responsible to Parliament for the workings of his ministry. Future Prime Ministers, as for example Sir Winston Churchill, served their turn at the Board of Trade. As a recent President of the Board of Trade was heard to remark, the Committee works “very well as a quorum of one” and he would not like to “disturb the arrangement.”

The Board has long been concerned with the expansion of British exports. Seventy-five years ago, at a time very like the present when pessimists were prophesying that England had run her course “as a trading and industrial community,” and was entering a new era in which she was faced with increasing foreign competition, the Board first published its Journal as a commercial intelligence service to British exporters. Then, as now, there was a trade gap. British exports were running at £19 million a month against £320 million today; imports at £29 million compared with £370 million. The Times, after editorially welcoming the first issue of the Journal, commented upon a report carried in the Journal on the opportunities for British cottons in the China market. “It would be sad humiliation for British trade,” the Times intoned, “if it were found that Chinese handlooms could produce clothing for Chinese laborers with which all the machinery of Lancashire could not profitably compete.”

New products and new markets proved to be the answer then, and later, when Max Beerbohm drew the cartoon opposite\*. They are probably the answer still.

\* The cartoon is reproduced by courtesy of the executors of the estate of the late Sir Max Beerbohm and by permission from “A Number of People”, the autobiography of Edward Marsh, who was Sir Winston Churchill's private secretary in 1908 when Sir Winston was President of the Board of Trade.

# Britain, Europe and the Commonwealth

Britain's formal application to join as a full member the European Common Market was heard by the Ministers of the existing group of six treaty countries in Paris on October 10. On November 8 negotiations began which are designed to deal with three consequential problems: Commonwealth trade; the position of the other European countries, members of the Free Trade Association but not part of the Community; and the problem of agricultural policies, on which the Six have not yet themselves agreed.

The British Government has declared that it cannot sign the Treaty of Rome unless satisfactory accommodation is reached on these three problems. However, as now presented, they are not thought to affect the basic provisions of the Rome Treaty, which sets up the European Community.

As regards the Treaty itself Britain declared that as far as she could judge, it would not be necessary to call for amendment to any of the 268 Articles of the Treaty, except of course that the drafting of some would require adaptation consequent on the admission of any new members. The special problems called attention to in the British presentation could be dealt with by protocols to the treaty, in the same way as had been the particular problems of several of the original six signatories.

Britain's attitude on these points caused undoubted relief to those concerned to preserve intact the carefully negotiated Rome Treaty. It represented from the start a forthcoming attitude and allayed fears that the Treaty was in danger of being emasculated by amendment. Even more important for the long run perhaps, was the British declaration that

“the United Kingdom were ready fully to subscribe to the aims and objectives of the Community . . . were also ready to play their full part in the institutions established under the Treaty and in the development of the Community generally.”

Although no one is suggesting that the outstanding problems are going to be easy to solve and certainly they are not of the sort that can be swept under the rug, the area of difficulty has been greatly narrowed. None of the non-commercial and non-agricultural provisions of the Treaty should cause major difficulty, the British negotiators have declared, thus indicating that the range of political and social provisions seem to be broadly acceptable straight away.

On agriculture, Britain has declared that she shares the objectives of the Rome Treaty for a common agricultural policy. She is not, as was feared would be the case, holding out for a distinct system for Britain that would somehow be different. Britain's main request is for sufficient time in which "to make the necessary changes." The major concession of principle here should ensure the *quid pro quo* respecting the time schedule.

As regards the future of the Free Trade Association members, the helpful attitude of the countries concerned is the main factor smoothing the path. The EFTA countries have jointly resolved that the eventual merger with the Community was indeed one of their purposes but that the Association shall remain in being (and active in its own system of tariff cutting)

"... until satisfactory arrangements have been worked out . . . to meet the various legitimate interests of all members of EFTA, and thus enable them all to participate from the same date in an integrated European Market."

As of this writing arrangements are already in hand for receiving the applications of Denmark and Ireland. The three neutrals, Sweden, Switzerland and Austria, are making a joint bid for associate membership in the Community as is provided for by Article 247 of the Rome Treaty.

Another area in which it was feared that Britain's application would have a wrecking effect was the central matter of the Common External Tariff of the Community. It takes the form of a single tariff wall embracing all the Community countries, the height of it being roughly the average of the former individual national tariffs. This is the Community's distinguishing economic feature and one which Britain had previously regarded as too confining. The alternative Free Trade Association approach involved no common external tariff; it was simply a matter of cutting the tariffs between the member countries, leaving them free, under GATT, to arrange their external tariffs as before. This approach has commended itself to Britain, particularly, because the larger part of her trade was (and is) outside Europe; a particularly large part, 40 per cent of the total, was, and is, with Commonwealth countries. As such it is governed by Commonwealth tariff preference arrangements which EFTA did not interfere with but which the European Common Tariff would make impossible to continue.

Here then is the central commercial difficulty. Again, the problem has been greatly narrowed by Britain's initial statement at the opening of the negotiations. Mr. Heath, the Minister in charge of the British end of the negotiations, said that

"he saw no need to ask for a negotiation item by item. The United



## *Direction of U.K. Trade—Exports (f.o.b.) 1960*

Some important *export* items going to selected areas.

	Percentage of Total				Total (£ million)
	Common- wealth	EFTA	EEC	USA	
Machinery other than electric .....	38.0	10.3	17.3	6.8	711.8
Road Vehicles and Aircraft .....	47.0	9.1	7.7	15.6	505.3
Chemicals .....	43.4	9.9	17.5	3.3	316.6
Textiles—					
Misc. Mfrs. ....	52.6	10.5	10.5	11.0	82.5
Wool .....	32.0	10.0	26.1	12.2	86.2
Misc. Manufactures .....	44.5	8.1	14.2	16.9	106.7

Kingdom were ready to accept the structure of the common tariff as the basis of the common tariff of the enlarged Community.”

Again this was a major cause for relief for the negotiators on the other side of the table.

As regards the necessary adjustments to conform to the time table for lowering tariffs *inside* the Community the British negotiators again gave promise of accommodation. Rather than “opening up” the existing agreements for renegotiation, Britain would come into line with “across the board” cuts. This could mean a cut of 50 per cent straight away in many of Britain’s tariffs vis a vis Europe when she joins; a point that Mr. Macmillan may have had in mind when he described entry into the Common Market as “a bracing cold shower . . . not a turkish bath.” There will of course be a few items in both the external and internal tariffs on which Britain may ask for special negotiation, but this would be no more than was asked and obtained by each of the existing signatories of the Rome Treaty. There may also be consequential adjustments all round as a result of the accession of a new member, but this is likely to happen when any new member joins a tariff group.

What, finally, are the Commonwealth problems? The immediate ones are commercial, but constitutional ones lie like shadows in the background. They have called forth sharp comments from several Commonwealth Prime Ministers and other leaders. Britain’s Prime Minister has however put it this way:

“Of course any substantial injury to the Commonwealth would be far too high a price to pay for membership of the European Community. *But I do not believe that such injury is a necessary consequence nor do I believe it is likely.*”



## *Direction of U.K. Trade—Imports (f.o.b.) 1960*

Some important *import* items coming from selected areas.

	Percentage of Total				Total (£ million)
	Common- wealth	EFTA	EEC	USA	
Meat and Meat Preparations .....	23.0	25.8	8.0	1.6	347.1
Cereals .....	49.9	.1	6.5	29.8	219.5
Coffee, cocoa, tea and spices .....	79.6	2.8	6.3	.4	176.1
Chemicals .....	11.7	10.5	38.4	28.8	175.6
Non-ferrous base metals .....	60.1	6.4	3.6	15.2	278.6
Machinery other than electric .....	7.4	13.9	39.9	33.3	200.8

The Commonwealth economic problem is this: If Britain was to join the Community unconditionally she would have to impose tariffs on Commonwealth products which at the moment attract no duty when they enter Britain. Furthermore, she would have to grant eventual free entry and for the moment preferred treatment, to the same goods coming from Community countries or from their dependencies or ex-dependencies, mainly in Africa. Commonwealth suppliers most affected might be New Zealand who sends almost 90 per cent of her butter, cheese and lamb to Britain, Australia with her wool, dairy products and meat or wheat. Canadian wheat (all wheat comes into Britain duty free including U.S. wheat), India, Nigeria, Ghana and other countries producing "tropical" products such as cocoa, coffee, sisal would all suffer this double knock—loss of preference in Britain and a new preference for their rivals.

British spokesmen have repeatedly taken the line that Britain herself can only continue to provide the size of markets which the Commonwealth, predominantly agricultural, expects from her, if she, as a manufacturing country, stays in the van of industrial advance and earns her share of the international trade in manufacturers. For this purpose membership in the Common Market, which is on her own doorstep, is essential. She is prepared to see the loss of the remaining exclusive preferences she enjoys in Commonwealth markets provided the free entry she gives to Commonwealth goods finds its counterpart in the new arrangements.

This might take the form of associating some Commonwealth countries in the arrangements planned just as the French colonial and ex-colonial territories have been associated with the Common Market to date. A

moment's reflection on the sheer size of the Commonwealth will explain why the Europeans cannot simply associate all Commonwealth members on this precedent, so, for others, special arrangements will be necessary. This may be one of the most difficult areas of negotiation.

Can the problems of the Commonwealth be met? What solutions are open to negotiation now that seemed impossible before?

First of all perhaps there is a new understanding in Europe and elsewhere of the significance of the Commonwealth politically as well as economically. While the Six are certainly not prepared to see their own association weakened or deferred to accommodate the Commonwealth, they mostly recognize that some commercial concessions can and must be made not only to the Commonwealth but to the other trading partners, not least to those of the Western hemisphere, and that these concessions far from weakening the European bloc can bring it greater strength. For Europe does not seek to be condemned as an inward-turning, protective association and in the struggle against Communism on the world plane, European leaders know full well that they cannot base their prosperity on the exclusion of trade from the less developed world.

With the promise of Britain as a full member of the group, the political as well as the economic solidarity of the Community can be greatly enhanced. Britain's new and forthcoming acceptance of the implications of becoming a "European" should be matched with concessions on the matter of Commonwealth trade.

Herr Mueller Armack, State Secretary for Economic Affairs in Bonn who presided over the first negotiating sessions on November 8, put it this way:

"They had agreed there were two tasks to be kept in mind: the integrity of the European Economic Community as such and the recognition of Britain's world wide relations as represented by the Commonwealth—for the maintenance of which solutions must be found."

The approach, Herr Mueller Armack said, will be "pragmatic" and added "Now that Britain the country which really invented the empirical approach has joined us, the method should be even more successful than in our earlier negotiations."

Acting promptly within this sensible-sounding frame of reference, the negotiations got down to business on November 22, isolating those points where Commonwealth Preference and the Common Market tariff are in conflict. No one looks for quick solutions of the technical problems but a good start has been made in an unprecedented scheme of international integration. The Common Market, with Britain's membership in it, is of far greater significance than the particular issues of commercial policy that, for the moment, obscure the light.

## DIRECTION OF UNITED KINGDOM TRADE—1960

£ million (\$ million in brackets)

	Imports from (c.i.f.)	% of Total	Exports to* (f.o.b.)	% of Total
<b>Commonwealth</b>				
Fed. of Rhodesia & Nyasaland .....	103.3		47.3	
India .....	149.3		151.8	
Australia .....	198.2		262.3	
New Zealand .....	185.8		120.7	
Canada .....	375.6		220.7	
Others .....	742.4		719.3	
Total .....	<u>1,754.6</u> (3,348.9)	38.5	<u>1,522.1</u> (4,261.9)	41.2
<b>E.F.T.A.</b>				
Austria .....	11.8		22.4	
Denmark .....	145.5		91.0	
Norway .....	77.6		72.5	
Portugal .....	17.9		23.3	
Sweden .....	163.9		134.5	
Switzerland .....	45.1		50.0	
Total .....	<u>461.8</u> (1,293.0)	10.1	<u>393.7</u> (1,102.4)	10.6
<b>E.E.C.</b>				
Western Germany ....	181.9		184.1	
Belgium/Luxembourg	69.4		68.8	
France .....	131.2		97.5	
Italy .....	99.0		93.6	
Netherlands .....	180.9		113.1	
Total .....	<u>662.4</u> (1,854.7)	14.5	<u>557.1</u> (1,559.9)	15.1
<b>U.S.A.</b> .....	567.5 (1,589.0)	12.4	341.9 (957.3)	7.5
<b>Rest of the World</b> .....	1,679.6 (4,702.9)	36.9	1,223.8 (3,426.6)	33.1
World Total .....	<u>4,558.4</u> (12,763.5)	100.0	<u>3,696.7</u> (10,350.1)	100.0

\* excluding re-exports



# European Cooperation in Space Research

In February of this year the Governments of Britain and France convened at Strasbourg a conference of European countries to discuss setting up a European launcher development organization. Nine countries sent delegates and a further four observers. The Anglo-French proposals envisage an initial program for a three-stage launcher which would be suitable for launching both research and commercial satellites. For the first stage *Blue Streak* would be used, and for the second, a French rocket making use of techniques under development in that country. The third stage rocket would be built and developed elsewhere in Europe.

The total cost of the project has been estimated at £70 million (\$196 million) spread over five years, with Britain bearing about one-third of the cost; the remainder would be divided between the participating countries roughly in proportion to national income. The project moved a step further on July 15 when the West German Government announced that it had decided in principle to participate. At the beginning of November Britain and France convened a second conference which drew up a draft convention covering the project. It is expected that the convention will be ratified by member countries by the end of the year.

*Blue Streak* was originally developed in Britain as a guided missile for defense purposes, and when it was decided to discontinue it in April 1960, some £65 million (\$182 million) to £70 million (\$196 million) was reported to have been spent on design, development and the provision of testing facilities and ground support equipment. Weighing about 80 tons, it is 70 feet long and 10 feet in diameter. It is propelled by liquid oxygen and kerosene, and its two engines, under development by Rolls-Royce, are capable of 150,000 lbs. of thrust each. It is being built by the de Havilland company at Hatfield in Hertfordshire, where there is a large test site for various parts of the system. No firings of the rocket engines are possible at this site; these are carried out either at Spadeadam in Cumberland or Woomera in Australia.

At Spadeadam, a complete static test bed has been installed for the vehicles. At the Weapons Research Establishment at Woomera and elsewhere in Australia, there are already well-established facilities, including radar and optical tracking stations. Woomera would appear

## *The Space Club*

*Participating Countries*—Britain, France, Australia, Belgium, Netherlands, Italy, Spain, West Germany.

*Purpose*—The development and construction of space vehicles for peaceful purposes.

*Initial Program*—Three-stage rocket launcher, using *Blue Streak* as the first propulsion stage, the French rocket *Veronique* as second stage, and the third stage to be developed mainly by West Germany.

to be highly suitable for the testing of the complete multi-stage launcher and nearly all construction work on the sets has been completed. Australia will be a full member of the launcher development organization.

The job of the French second rocket stage would be to increase the speed of the launcher from the 8,500 m.p.h. achieved before *Blue Streak* falls away, to 14,500 m.p.h. The final speed necessary for the third stage will be from 17,000 to 20,000 m.p.h., depending on the height of the orbit.

These complete three-stage launchers would carry only test satellites designed for the primary purpose of establishing the ability of the launching vehicle to inject a satellite into orbit in a satisfactory fashion. The satellites would be used to study such questions as the environmental conditions affecting the satellite during the powered flight of the launching vehicle, problems of separation of the satellite from the third stage, and the residual motion imparted to the satellite by separation. They might also be used for simple scientific experiments or the carriage of components for test in space.

Apart from purely scientific uses, probably the most important commercial application of satellites is likely to be providing a worldwide satellite communication system. Recent Hawker Siddeley studies indicate that a system of eight satellites could provide a worldwide communications system. If the total cost of rocket and satellite development is assumed to be twice the £70 million (\$196 million) stated as having been spent, profits from the communication system could cover this capital expenditure within about ten years of operation. As the U.S. has demonstrated other important commercial applications for satellites are likely to be for navigation and weather reporting.

*With Britain growing nearer to Europe, the hoary issue of a decimal currency comes to the fore again. The Government has invited the public to give its views on the matter and has promised a statement of its own view shortly. How would the changeover work?*

## A Decimal System of Coinage\*

by

C. A. J. Martin, G.C., M.C.

Chairman of the Decimal Coinage and Metric  
System Panel Association of British Chambers  
of Commerce

For more than 130 years Great Britain has been considering and weighing up the pros and cons of adopting the decimal system, mainly with regard to coinage. The earliest recorded official interest was in a motion before the House of Commons in 1824. Between then and 1918, decimal coinage was reported on or debated by Royal Commissions, Motions, Select Committees and Conferences at regular intervals on twelve or more occasions. Opinion "for" or "against" was fairly equally divided, but it is a fair summary that at each enquiry the "technical" merits of a change were not disputed and thus it appears that only the anticipated or feared resistance of public opinion has prevented action. Thus, Mr. Gladstone, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, speaking in 1845:

"I cannot doubt that a decimal system of coinage would be of universal advantage in monetary transactions. The weight of authority on that head is irresistible . . . All I say is I cannot take any decisive step until we are satisfied that the subject has been thoroughly sifted and is well understood by the public . . ."

In 1849, as a result of earlier pressure, the florin (2 shilling piece) was introduced as a first placatory, if timid, step towards decimal coinage. The more conclusive plans which have been in gestation for 112 years have yet to be born! Even so, as far back as 1871 a Bill for Adoption of the Metric System of Weights & Measures was defeated at its Second Reading by only five votes and in 1897 The Weights & Measures Act legalized the use of the metric system of weights and measures for use in trade, with certain prohibitions in articles of food

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\* Reprinted, with permission, from June 1961 issue of the Federation of British Industries' Review.



and drink, sand and ballast and coal. Not unnaturally, subsequent history shows that in default of definite planning and phased adoption of metric units, voluntary option during the past sixty-four years has resulted, and seems likely in future to result, in extremely slow and little more than marginal usage of the metric system.

Since the last Royal Commission in 1918 produced a divided opinion, interest seems to have waned until 1951 when the Hodgson Committee, on the reform of weights and measures, becoming enmeshed in attempts to clarify and rationalize our present systems, concluded that there was an urgent need to introduce the metric system and decimal coinage, a recommendation which, being outside their terms of reference, appears to have been ignored by the Government.

What then makes the whole subject worthy of the latest study, or what accounts for the evident upsurge of interest in these matters, certainly in commercial and industrial fields? There seem to be four main reasons:

- There is the heightened post-war interest in world affairs, and particularly in the past few years in our relationships with the rest of (decimalized) Europe—the “Six” and the “Seven”—with its massive potential of 257 million highly industrialized peoples. Added to Europe is the rapid growth in potential and trading importance of major Asian countries, all with decimal coinage and using or intending to use the metric system.
- The rapid increase in mechanization of accounting and other business methods and practices.
- Because of the increasing and vital importance of Britain export trade, the notably enhanced interest in international standards, particularly engineering standards, with dimensional systems inevitably included.
- The gathering momentum evidenced in adoption by other countries (including some Commonwealth countries) of decimal coinage or the metric system, or both.

In 1957, following a preliminary sounding of members views by the Federation of British Industries, The British Association for the Advancement of Science set up a Committee under Sir Hugh Beaver to consider the practicability, implications, consequences and costs of a changeover to the metric system and/or the decimalization of the coinage in the United Kingdom. In consequence, the F.B.I. left the field to the B.A.A.S. Committee. Simultaneously, but quite independently, The Association of British Chambers of Commerce set up a Committee with

### *“Pounds, Shillings and Pence—”*

- 12 pennies (pence) equal one shilling
- Twenty shillings equal one pound (thus, 240 pence equal one pound)
- Coins and notes in regular use:  
halfpenny, penny (1d), threepenny piece, sixpence (6d), shilling (1/-), two-shilling piece (florin), half-crown (two shillings and sixpence), ten shilling note, pound note, five pound note.

very similar terms of reference. In the event, the two Committees, working together, published a joint and unanimous Report in May, 1960 “Decimal Coinage and the Metric System—Should Britain Change?”, referred to hereinafter briefly as The Report.

Before considering the findings of The Report, or any consequent action which it recommends, it should be helpful to fill in some of the background.

#### **The Decimal System**

The two subjects, a decimal system of coinage and the metric system of weights and measures, are distinct and can be considered separately. They are, however, closely inter-related and linked by the common factor of a decimal system. The first known reference to the decimal system is in the 13th century when comparison was made of the advantages of the Indian and later Arabic system of writing by tens, compared with the Roman system of notation by letter. The merits of the decimal system came to be fully recognized in the 17th century and French mathematicians had developed a completed decimal system by the end of the 18th century.

Decimal coinage was adopted by the U.S.A. in 1792 and by Canada and, along with the metric system, by France in 1803. The change to decimal currency has accelerated since 1865.

To date, 145 countries throughout the world have adopted decimal coinage systems, seventy countries having changed since 1900. Of these, with the exception of English speaking countries, notably the U.S.A. and Canada, the large majority have also adopted or are adopting the metric system of weights and measures. Australia, New Zealand and

### *One Pound Sterling—*

£ 1 Sterling is equal to—

	U.S. dollars .....	2.80	
Existing	{	French francs .....	13.82
Common		German marks .....	11.76
Market		Belgian francs .....	140.00
Currencies		Dutch guilders .....	10.64
		Italian lira .....	1,750.00

the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, have appointed Government Committees which each in turn have strongly recommended a change to decimal coinage. Britain may shortly be almost isolated.

#### **Advantages of Decimalization**

The fundamental advantage of a decimal system, whether for monetary units or units of linear measurement, weight and capacity, lies in the fact that our system of notation for ordinary arithmetic is itself a decimal system and that therefore by its adoption for value, measurement, weight and capacity and for the daily combination of these factors, we should have a single simple, practical and coherent system of notation.

Contrast this practicability with the appalling conglomeration of units which Britain now employs. Like "Topsy", our present wide variety of units has "just grown". Historically they derive from arbitrary and elementary expedients born in ages of little education; such as an acre being a man's daily ploughing capacity, a mile a thousand paces, with other units derived from a measure of corn or what a man could hold, and so on. Our coinage is said to date from Charlemagne's Roman pound weight of silver (about 800 A.D.) which was introduced to Europe by the Danish invasion.

The Report emphasizes that the saving in mathematics teaching time is a most important advantage of a coherent decimal system. This aspect is also strongly stressed in the recent reports on decimal coinage by the Committees appointed by the Governments of New Zealand, Australia and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. Estimates of saving in teaching time vary, for ages six to eleven from 5 per cent to 10 per



cent of mathematics teaching time with the introduction of decimal coinage to 10 per cent to 20 per cent for the metric system separately. In combination as a fully coherent decimal system, the savings would therefore be very substantial. The Australian Report set savings at a higher level and found that for decimal coinage alone the savings at the younger ages could be from 5 per cent to 50 per cent.

The Report, with a 92½ per cent favorable vote from the near 2,000 individual respondents to their enquiry, found that there was a strong case for the adoption of a decimal system of coinage. It urges the Government to take an early decision in principle and stresses that in any case decimal coinage is an essential preliminary step to any further general adoption of the metric system, and that delay in decision would add materially to the cost and transitional difficulties of a changeover. It is always important to remember that the advantages to be gained, which are briefly summarized below, are perpetual advantages and thus will inevitably outbalance any short term once-for-all costs involved.

### **Decimal Coinage**

All monetary sums would be in multiples of ten, resulting, it is claimed, in fewer errors, and in saving of time. In office work particularly it has been shown that labor economies could be made and time in present check for errors would be saved.

The Australian Report has one interesting estimate, giving a man/hour saving equivalent to £6 million in wages per year. This is founded on national percentages for those engaged on office tasks susceptible to saving in calculation. On any such (rather general) assumptions Britain, with its much larger labor force, would show very substantial savings in wages bills in the fields of calculation and data processing.

Machines would become fundamentally the same for all money or arithmetical computation. Such machines are basically decimal in principle, but require special adaptation for £.s.d (pound, shillings and pence). Decimal coinage would provide a freer market for British and foreign machine manufacturers, and the competition should result in cheaper machines. These advantages would be greatest with a two decimal coinage system as is common to other countries. Thus, for example, the 10s./Cent coinage system, which is two decimal, would be more advantageous than the £/mil system, which is a three decimal system.

It is fundamental that no decimal coinage can preserve both the £ and the penny at their present value. There would seem, at first sight, much popular support for retention of the £ and in some quarters it is suggested that to have any other major unit would damage our inter-

national prestige. It is perhaps for question how much of this view and feeling is founded on sentiment since supporting logical evidence is rarely forthcoming. The decision on a major unit is, however, clearly one of primary importance which can only be taken by Government after a careful balancing of all the influencing factors. Of the many possible coinage systems, two only are believed to warrant serious consideration.

If in truth the £ must be retained then a £/mil (1,000 parts) is the sole practical system since the £/cent gives a smallest coin of 2.4 pence value which is considered too high for daily use in commerce, and fractions of a cent would destroy some of the advantages of a decimal system, particularly in the added complications for machines such as cash registers. The £/mil has the disadvantage of a three decimal system, hard for the public to understand and absorbing a third "bank" in monetary machines thereby reducing their capacity. It has the further disadvantage that the mil with value less than the demonetized farthing is too small for modern purchasing values.

If however the £ need not be retained, the ideal choice is the 10s./cent system. This is a two decimal system, and, incidentally, is that adopted by South Africa and recommended by New Zealand, Australia and Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The smallest coin would be 1.2. pence in value and it is believed would ultimately be small enough for daily use. If thought necessary, it would be possible to have a  $\frac{1}{2}$  cent coin for the transitional period of changeover—about two years—as recommended in the Australian Report. The 10s./cent system maintains the important coin of one shilling at present value and also the half shilling (sixpence) as a 5 cent coin, could be retained. This system most easily enables people to associate the new with the old. Support for the 10s./cent system has most recently been given by The Council of The Institute of Chartered Accountants in urging the Chancellor of the Exchequer to take a prompt decision in favor of decimal coinage.

### **Costs and Transitional Problems**

The major cost, and indeed disturbance, in a changeover is in conversion or replacement of existing monetary machines such as cash registers, adding, calculating and accounting machines, gas pumps and coin operated machines of various kinds. There are about one and a quarter million of such machines presently installed in Britain. Allowing for predetermined life values, the cost of replacement or conversion of such machines, has been estimated at around £100 million, (\$280 mn.). The task would need a high degree of centralized organization working with the machine manufacturers and would take about two

years to accomplish, during which time some overlapping of the old and new coinage systems would be unavoidable.

Although this cost is a substantial figure it should be looked at in perspective. Spread over five years—three preparatory and two transitional years—it would equal about 0.8 pence/£ of total revenue at current rates, or compared with consumer's annual expenditure of around £16,000 million (1960) would be 0.3 pence/£. There will, of course, be supplementary, but less easily defined, costs arising in varying degree from transitional problems in each section of industry and commerce. Disbursement to cover these costs should fairly quickly be balanced by the consequential savings.

The Government, in utterance strangely reminiscent of Mr. Gladstone in 1854, acknowledges "the very powerful assembly of opinion in favor of the change" as found in The Report (Lord Dundee November 10, 1960) but apparently holds the view that it must wait for some further expression of public opinion before making up its mind.

It is difficult for the ordinary man and woman to give a balanced view on this subject until they have been much more fully informed and until a decision has been taken on the right system to adopt founded on the correct choice of the major unit. Commerce and industry however, including the retail trade, have come out strongly in favor of the change. Since these sections of the country will both bear the brunt of the transitional difficulties and disturbances and be most sensitive to the resulting benefits, it seems likely that their opinions will carry considerable weight in the balance of evidence which influences a decision.

### *Decimal Coinage — The Chancellor's Statement*

The Chancellor of the Exchequer recently commented upon the technical problems connected with a change to a decimal system.

"The pound," he said, "does not lend itself particularly readily to decimalization, since its hundredth part would be too large to serve conveniently as the smallest unit of currency, while its division into a thousand parts (the £ mil. system) would involve the inconvenience and expense of working to three points of decimals. On the other hand there are evident objections, in which Her Majesty's Government see great force, to giving up the pound as the main unit of currency bearing in mind the role which it has for long played in international trade, and the respect in which it is held throughout the world. If this consideration were thought decisive, the practical choice would then be between the retention of our present currency and the addition of a decimal currency based on the pound (i.e. the £ mil. system or some variant of it)."



# The New Universities

The English resort town of Brighton in Sussex, first made popular in the 18th century by George IV when he was Prince of Wales, is the site of one of seven new universities in Britain. Official approval for the creation of a University of Sussex was given in July 1958, and the new University opened in October of this year, two years ahead of schedule.

Five of the other six (the seventh is yet to be named) will also be attached to historic cities. The first two—approval for which was given in April 1960—will be at York, and at Norwich in Norfolk. The remaining three, which received approval only in May 1961, will be at Canterbury in Kent, Colchester in Essex, and Coventry in Warwickshire.

The founding of these new Universities marks another step forward in the expansion of higher education facilities in Britain, where, however, a difference is preserved between the Universities with strictly academic roles and other higher education institutions which concentrate on vocational, technical and other career training. At present the total number of University students in Britain is about 106,000, double the pre-war figure, and in addition there are some 100,000 students in other higher educational institutions. Competition for these places has already been and is expected to become even greater after 1964, when the children born in the post-World War II bulge in the birthrate reach University age.

The University of Sussex opened modestly with 50 students, though there were 500 applicants for admission. By October 1962 the University will have room for 350-400 students, and it is planned that by the early 1970's the student body will total 3,000. York, which hopes to start with 200 students in 1963, aims at a similar total during its first 15 years.

Each of the new universities will occupy about 200 acres of suitable land. With such an area at their disposal, the architects can work out plans for comprehensive development, comprising halls of residence, laboratories, libraries, music rooms, and other essential features of university life. The University of York, for example, will be situated in parklands which lie within a mile of the ancient city walls; for the University of Kent 400 acres of land, mainly agricultural, have been set aside, partly in the rural area overlooking Canterbury to the south; while 200 acres on the south side of Coventry have been reserved for the University of Warwickshire.

### *The Post War Universities*

University of Exeter	Founded 1955
University of Hull	Founded 1954
University of Leicester	Founded 1957
University of Nottingham	Founded 1948
University of Southampton	Founded 1952
University of Sussex	Founded 1959

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University of York	To open 1963
University of Norwich	To open 1964

#### *At Planning Stage*

University of Colchester	} Academic planning Boards appointed
University of Canterbury	
University of Coventry	

#### *University College*

University College of North Staffordshire	Founded 1949. Will obtain full University status in 1962.
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Financial help will, of course, be necessary and forthcoming. Today, between two-thirds and three-quarters of university recurrent expenditure is met by grants voted by Parliament and allocated by the University Grants Committee. These grants, which are distributed on a five-yearly basis, have risen considerably in recent years, from £65.6 million for the 1947-52 period to £181 million for 1957-62. Sussex is included for the first time in the list of grants for the current year. In addition to the aid they receive toward their annual expenditure, the universities also receive non-current grants toward capital expenditure, such as the erection of new buildings. £60 million has been authorized for university expansion during 1960-63. This sum is likely to be increased before the end of the period.

The universities do not benefit solely from State contributions. A proportion of their income is raised by fees, endowments and from other sources; while contributions also come from local authorities, charitable trusts, industry, and private benefactors. The new University of Kent, for instance, will benefit from a gift of £100,000 from the City Council of Canterbury and a further £100,000 from Kent County Council. And, as an example of industrial help, Unilever Ltd. is to make gifts to the new universities of some £250,000.

A new departure is the fact that from the very beginning the new universities will operate as full universities with power to confer their own degrees, control their curricula, and build up teaching and research in unison. They will not have to proceed to full status through the transitional stage of university college, thus differing from the University College of North Staffordshire (or Keele), the only university college created since the end of World War II. Keele, which hopes to become a full university in 1962, already has power to confer its own first degree, but still takes higher degrees through two of its sponsoring universities—Manchester and Birmingham.

The initial courses in the University of Sussex will be confined to Arts; but Science will be added in October 1962. Of the two types of degree course available—the specialized single subject course which offers an intellectual training in depth, and the multi-subject course—Sussex has opted for the second, choosing courses in which the subjects taken can be combined to form a single study or are interdependent on one another.

York, too, has chosen the multi-subject course. According to the interim report of the University's Planning Board, studies for a first degree will be widened by the inclusion of a major subject, which will be supported by subsidiary subjects having some intellectual bearing on it, for example, a Science "major" flanked by Economics and Philosophy. Completely general degrees are not recommended. "We do not favor courses which provide no center of gravity for the student," states the report, "and which, for that reason, often impose greater strain on the less well equipped than courses which are more closely integrated."

The education of scientists and technologists in the universities is carried out for the most part within the confines of the general degree course. Running roughly parallel with the universities there are now nine Colleges of Advanced Technology, which are being developed as centers for work at university level, including post-graduate work and research.

The structure of scientific and technical education reaches its apex in the universities and these Colleges of Advanced Technology. It is reckoned that for every student studying Engineering in a university there are three training elsewhere. By the 1970s, when the university intake is expected to reach 170-175,000, it is estimated that two-thirds of the extra intake will be studying Science or Technology. It is not without cause therefore that the swing to science now taking place was recently referred to by the Minister of Education as "a silent revolution."



# “Fringe” Benefits and Welfare Costs

Both management and workers are becoming increasingly concerned with the so-called “fringe” benefits in British industry. Some of the more enlightened employers have long provided benefits and welfare facilities over and above the statutory requirements, and the movement is spreading. On the trade union side, as well as pressing straightforward wage claims, the leaders are demanding that employers should provide their workers with extra protection against old age, sickness, redundancy and other contingencies, to supplement the benefits provided under the State scheme.

Nor is Security the only aim. Increasing attention is being paid to Status. This is in line with a recent International Labour Office report which stated:

“The mission of social security is no longer to offer protection against destitution and the like, but to safeguard an acquired social status”.

Social insurance benefits in Britain are usually on a flat-rate basis, with no reference to earnings. This means that a worker may find, if he loses his job, falls sick or reaches retiring age, that his standard of living is suddenly and catastrophically reduced. If he has undertaken installment purchase or house-ownership commitments, he may find himself seriously embarrassed. It can also mean a sudden drop in social status, as he and his family can no longer afford to keep up with their friends and neighbors.

Before World War II, schemes to supplement income during difficult periods were fairly commonly applied to staff, but only very rarely to manual workers. In the postwar period, there has been a considerable extension of such schemes to include manual workers, and it is certain that this trend will continue.

Until recently, very little information had been available about how much industry actually spends on such social and welfare costs, and their effects on the wages bill. Mr. William Durham, Assistant Director of the Industrial Welfare Society, has lately published a valuable pamphlet, called “The £.s.d. of Welfare in Industry”. In it, he records the results of a sample survey of about 135 of the Society’s member firms, who replied to a detailed questionnaire on their expenditure.

The author points out that the firms were not necessarily representative of British industry — indeed, most of them were far ahead in their social and welfare provision. The results are nevertheless a valuable pointer to current practice. Before examining these results, let us first look at the broader nature and range of some of the present methods. The two most usual types of “fringe” benefit are sick pay and pensions.

In the past, extra payment during sickness was often applied to staff members only. There has recently been an increasing trend towards including manual workers. The importance of provision during sickness can be gauged from the fact that in an average year, nearly 300 million working days are lost to industry through sickness. Sick pay schemes occasionally afford full pay during sickness for a given period, but it is more usual to find the amount related to earnings, on a scale which ranges from one-quarter to two-thirds of a worker's average earnings.

There has been a rapid spread of occupational pension schemes. In 1936, 1½ million people were earning pension rights in private industry and what are now the nationalized industries. By 1958, the total was nearly 7 million, and it is estimated that about half the adult men in the labor force now qualify for a pension.

The pensions paid usually average about £ 2 a week, which, when combined with the State pension, should approximate to about half a man's previous earnings. Staff usually receive about twice the amount. Pensions vary according to length of service, and a worker who retires after 40 years with one firm would probably get nearer two-thirds of his earnings. Unlike industry in France and some other European countries, British industry does not normally provide any kind of family allowance as an extra social benefit.

Holidays might rank as another "fringe" benefit. The usual practice in British industry is two weeks holiday with pay, plus the standard six statutory days. In only a few cases, for instance for some heavy steel workers, is this period exceeded, though staff and office workers usually get longer and some firms grant extra holidays to both works and staff employees with long service. Most unions are now pressing for a third week's paid holiday.

Many employers tend to regard such claims as a concealed demand for higher wages. The more progressive accept that much of the provision for welfare and "fringe" benefits is an essential, almost an overhead, cost. A distinction has to be drawn between those services which are provided exclusively by management and which relate to working conditions (such as canteens, protective clothing, first aid and medical treatment, safety and general amenities) and those which relate to income and have to be negotiated. There are also the borderline services, such as sports and social clubs, works magazines and the like, which are probably provided by a minority of firms.

Mr. Durham has examined the cost of benefits and services of *all* kinds. His conclusion is that the sum total of social and welfare benefits adds

between 12 and 25 per cent of the total employee remuneration. In the survey, the median figure was £ 84 per employee per year.

*Sick pay*, including wages and salaries during absence and contribution to sick and benevolent funds, or upkeep of a convalescent home, ranged from 0.1 per cent to 3.35 per cent. The median figure was 0.88 per cent. This, says the IWS, is a long way from the cost of a reasonable sick pay scheme, which should cost between 2 and 2½ per cent of the pay roll.

*Pensions* varied widely in scope and range. The proportionate cost ranged from 20 per cent in the case of one chemical firm to less than 1 per cent for textiles. The median firm spent 7.04 per cent. The average cost among engineering firms was 2.78 per cent and among food firms, 5.12 per cent. Staff pensions were more costly than those of manual workers, and in every instance, the schemes were more expensive at the beginning than when they were under way.

The cost of *Holidays* in the median firm was 5.2 per cent, though some firms spent up to 8 per cent.

Here are some other figures from the Survey, relating to the median firm (percentages are of total wage-bill):

Canteens .....	1.0	per cent
Annual Bonus or Profit shares .....	4.9	" "
Sports and Social Club .....	0.17	" "
Protective Clothing .....	0.4	" "
National Insurance (a statutory charge) ....	2.4	" "
Common Law Insurance .....	0.2	" "

Other items, on which relatively little detail was given, include long service awards, transport subsidies, children's nurseries and housing.

Mr. Durham reports that food firms appear to be ahead of most others in the range and scope of benefits provided: they are closely followed by the chemical industry, especially on the pharmaceutical side. Engineering firms came about half-way, with the electronic and electric side ahead of heavy engineering. Textiles, especially cotton, were well down the scale.

Geographically, it was found that firms in the London area tend to pay the highest "fringe" benefits. This is understandable, because, with the pressure of labor shortage in London and the South, extra inducements to recruit and maintain the labor forces are needed.

It was not found that employers always regarded these benefits as an alternative to higher wages. On the contrary, firms which paid the biggest "fringe" benefits also tended to be the higher-wage employers. It was shown that larger firms tend to be more generous than the smaller ones.



Another element adding to the cost structure is expenditure on *personnel administration*. Here the Survey found costs ranging from 0.31 to 2.85 per cent of the wages bill, with the median of 1.21 per cent. Taking the average total remuneration as £ 582 per year, this means an average of £ 7.1s. per worker.

The cost of *medical* items (such as salaries, fees, equipment and drugs) worked out for the median firm at 0.27 per cent or 33s.6d. per worker per year.

It was difficult to separate the cost of *education* and *training*, especially since the latter is often given directly on the shop floor, but Mr. Durham estimates that the full costs could be put at about 7 per cent. *Safety* costs were also difficult to break down.

Two final questions put to firms in the Survey dealt with contributions to charity, and schemes to enable employees to buy the firm's products at cost price. Both were fairly small items.

There is one aspect of "fringe" benefits to which Mr. Durham does not pay very much attention in his Survey — perhaps he will do so in a future revised edition — and that is payment for redundancy.

This is becoming a matter of increasing importance, and agreements have been negotiated for many different types of workers. The Ministry of Labour's National Joint Advisory Council, consisting of employers and union leaders, has this summer considered a booklet which codifies existing practice and aims to encourage more industries and firms to adopt schemes to protect their workers against the effect of the "sack."

It is officially estimated that about 1 million workers are covered by known redundancy policies in private industry, with perhaps another 1 million by "recommendations." In the publicly-owned industries (coal, railways, air lines, gas and electricity), nation-wide agreements have been reached affecting about 2 million, or *all* their workers. For example, the National Coal Board guarantees redundant miners, after three years' service, two-thirds of their minimum wage, (less statutory unemployment benefit) for six months. Older long service workers may receive benefits for up to 41 weeks.

The practice and procedure of redundancy agreements varies enormously, but certain broad criteria are applicable and are encouraged by the Labour Ministry. These are: Management should give maximum warning of threatened redundancies, and should inform and consult their workpeople; firms should aim to plan their labor budgets ahead, and compensation should be related to length of service and include some element for "social" loss or loss of prospects.

# The Care of Mental Patients in Britain

*"Disorders of the mind are illnesses which need medical treatment . . . Even when the disorder cannot be completely cured, it is often possible for the patient to live a happy and useful life in spite of some continuing mental weakness."*

The above quotation was taken from the opening of the Report of the Royal Commission on the Law relating to Mental Illness and Mental Deficiency. It is perhaps the best statement of the ideas behind the latest trends in the care of the mentally ill in Britain today and it was on the recommendations of the Royal Commission that the Mental Health Act, 1959\*—which came into full effect at the end of last year—was largely based. These new trends, these new ways of thinking, were not created by legislation: rather the other way about, the legislation was created by them. What the Act has done is to take note of the latest developments in the treatment and care of mental disorders and, by replacing previous legislation, some of it dating back to the nineteenth century and reflecting out dated ways of thinking, to prepare the ground for them to flourish as freely as possible.

Broadly speaking, the most significant factors recognized by the new legislation are

- That modern methods of treatment are enabling far more sufferers from mental disorders to be cured, and cured quickly.
- That mental hospitals should be places of remedy rather than of custody.
- That the old barriers between the mental hospital and the rest of the hospital service are disappearing.
- That there is increasing scope for treatment of the mentally ill outside hospital, in the community.

Recent statistics indicate that a very long stay in a mental hospital, especially for those who seek treatment early, is becoming the exception. For example, in 1952 of 62,300 admissions 45,200 were discharged within 12 months. Five years later the comparable figures were 89,000 and 72,000—an increase of more than 40 per cent. in admissions but, on the credit side, an even larger one (about 60 per

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\* In considering the Mental Health Act, 1959 it should be remembered that its provisions apply only to England and Wales: Scotland and Northern Ireland are having their own measures enacted. These, though they differ from the English pattern in detail are inspired by the same spirit.

cent.) in the number discharged within 12 months. Indeed, following an analysis of recent trends, it has been officially forecast that the number of hospital beds needed for the mentally ill may be halved in 16 years time—some 75,000 compared with the present 150,000. And for those people who do have to occupy those beds there is far more freedom than would have been thought possible 20 or 30 years ago.

Two of the most important developments in the care of the mentally ill that have taken place since the war are the setting up of psychiatric wings or units in general hospitals and the remarkable progress that has been made by psychiatric day hospitals.

There are several advantages in treating mental disorders in a special department of a general hospital. One is geographical. The hospital is likely to be much nearer the patient's home than the mental hospital to which he would otherwise be admitted. This makes it easier for him to receive frequent visits from relatives and friends and prevents his feeling completely isolated from the rest of the community. Secondly, although the old stigma attached to mental illness is fast disappearing the fact remains that many people are still reluctant for it to be known that they are having psychiatric treatment; admission to a general hospital does away with the need for anyone outside their immediate circle knowing that they are not being treated for some purely physical disorder. It is felt too that the psychiatric wing is an excellent way of breaking down the division between the psychological and other branches of medicine. Until the new legislation came into force there were legal difficulties in the way of treating the seriously ill mental patient in a general hospital, but these have been removed by the Mental Health Act, one of the most important effects of which is that the mental patient can receive treatment as informally as can the sufferer from any other type of ailment. It is predicted that the psychiatric unit will play an increasingly large role in providing the type of treatment that can best be administered on an in-patient basis.

The psychiatric day hospital may be described as bridging the gap between in-patient and out-patient treatment. The first was opened in 1946, now, it is estimated there are about 50 of them in England and Wales alone.

The pioneer of the movement is Dr. Joshua Bierer, a Vienna trained psychiatrist who settled in Britain in 1938. Believing that many patients can be cured while remaining in the community and that self-help and helping fellow sufferers is an important aid to recovery, in 1944 he began making plans for a hospital that could treat patients without removing them from their homes. Two years later his scheme materialized as the Social Psychotherapy Center which, having come into



the National Health Service in 1948, is now known as the Marlborough Day Hospital. Patients attend for treatment during the hours in which they would normally be at work, spending their nights and week-ends at home. Treatments are of the kind they might receive at the in-patient type of hospital and a great deal of emphasis is placed on group activities. Although for administrative purposes the hospital is part of a large general hospital group it is run as an entirely self-contained unit in a large house in a fashionable area of North-West London.

Although all day hospitals have the same basic idea behind them they may vary a good deal in the way in which they are run. Some, unlike the one with which Dr. Bierer is associated, function as departments of a parent mental hospital. Others may cater to a particular type of patient, like, for example, one at Oxford which specializes in treating elderly people, thereby relieving their families of the responsibility of caring for them during the day. And for patients who are able to carry on with their normal work some hospitals reverse the usual time sequence. The patient attends for treatment in the evening and spends the night at the hospital.

Although the present policy is to keep people suffering from mental disorders out of hospital wherever practicable and to make the stay of those who are admitted as short as possible, there are of course still many sufferers who have to spend longer periods as in-patients. Much is now being done to ensure that these people as well as those patients who became ill years ago before the advent of modern treatments which might have prevented chronic illness, do not lose touch completely with the world outside. What might be called "work therapy" plays an important part in this.

Occupational therapy as such was introduced into many mental hospitals during the 1930s, but although this helped to pass the time and was, indeed, useful in reducing the most obvious effects of enforced idleness it could not be expected to provide the conditions of normal employment or offer any financial incentive. With the object of making up for these deficiencies some hospitals have introduced what is known as "industrial therapy". This consists in doing paid work under conditions more approaching those to be met with in industry. It has the additional advantage of requiring patients to work as a team instead of in isolation. Usually the work is done on a contract basis for local firms but one hospital is manufacturing its own product—carnival hats—with only a nucleus of workers recruited from outside.

At a Bristol hospital (Fishponds Hospital) an experimental training factory has been started with the object of providing conditions even closer to those met with in the normal world of work. It is run as a

non-profit making company directed by representatives of local hospitals, churches, government agencies and both sides of industry. Trainees are selected from the hospital's already well established industrial therapy unit and a "staff" of 80 was at work within six months of the scheme's coming into operation. It is hoped that eventually some 120 patients will be earning an average of £5 a week. The project is intended as a stepping stone, not an end in itself and local employers are co-operating by accepting patients who have proved they are fit to return to more competitive conditions. Already 30 patients who have a total of 250 hospital years behind them have been able to re-adapt themselves in this way. In other parts of the country former mental patients are being given training alongside people recovering from physical disabilities at Ministry of Labour Industrial Rehabilitation Units.

Linked with these efforts to ease the return of patients to every day life is the setting up of hostels for those who need an interim period in sheltered conditions while adjusting themselves to life outside the hospital. This, in fact, is only one aspect of "community care" for the mentally ill; others include home visiting by social workers and the setting up of clubs for former patients who are finding difficulty in re-establishing social contacts.

In both our countries much has been learned about the care of the mentally adjusted. In the past 10 years there has been revolutions in both attitudes to and treatment of the mentally sick. But much more remains to be done before the best practices now developed are universally accepted.

### *"The Rolling English Roads"*

The majority of Britain's roads reflect the horse and buggy era, if not earlier times. The straightest and most famous were laid by the Romans.

But the first stretches of a new system of motorways are now open. A new road program, announced in July 1960, provides for a substantial rise in expenditure over the next five years. If plans go forward, about £230 million will be found from central government funds for road development in England and Wales over the next two years, to which local authorities may add a further £115 million.

All new motorways and major roads are being planned for traffic to drive on either side in case Britain decides to change to the right-hand drive system.

# Britain's Post Office Savings Bank

Britain's Post Office Savings Bank, which celebrated its centenary in September, is to-day the largest organization of its kind in the world. Savings Bank business can be transacted at some 22,000 post offices, and at the end of June this year a balance of more than £1,746 million was held in approximately 22 million accounts. Transactions during 1960 were about 96,600,000, with a total turnover of over £1,026 million.

The popularity of the Bank is without doubt due to the facility which enables money to be deposited, and withdrawn on demand, anywhere in the United Kingdom where a Savings Bank post office exists, and there are 22,000 of them. To this must be added the ease with which an account can be opened. Only five shillings (70 cents) and a specimen signature are essential.

The Post Office Savings Bank was founded as a result of legislation introduced by William Gladstone, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, who, according to his biographer, John Morley, placed the measure among the greatest of his achievements. Long before the passing into law, in May 1861, of the Post Office Savings Bank Bill proposals for a Government savings bank had been put forward. As far back as 1807 a Member of Parliament called Samuel Whitbread, a member of the famous firm of brewers in introducing into the House of Commons a Poor Law Amendments Bill, put before Parliament the idea of a system for collecting the savings of people of small means through post offices. But his proposals were allowed to drop. The idea slowly ripened, however, and in 1859 Charles William Sikes, a Yorkshire banker, again brought it to public notice. He failed, however, to propose a good method of carrying it out.

It was George Chetwynd who was in the Post Office service who devised an acceptable plan, which Gladstone brought promptly and successfully before the House of Commons. Chetwynd subsequently became the first Controller of the Post Office Savings Bank, and Britain was the first country in the world to establish such a bank. Some 50 years earlier, however, the Reverend Henry Duncan of Ruthwell, Dumfriesshire in Scotland, had founded the first self-supporting savings bank. His bank was the forerunner of the Trustee Savings Banks which, to-day



with their special local associations, are complementary to and flourish side by side with the Post Office Savings Bank.

When the Bank opened its doors on September 16, 1861, to provide, in the terms of the Act, "additional facilities for depositing small savings at interest with the security of the Government for due repayment thereof", only 301 post offices in England and Wales were included in this experiment to attract the thrifty to entrust their savings to the nation's keeping. On that day 435 deposits, amounting to £911, were received. An annual limit on deposits of £30 was imposed with a total limit of £150 and an accumulated limit with interest of £200. The deposits were state guaranteed and earned interest at the rate of £2.10.0 per cent, which is still the rate to-day.

From the very beginning, the success of the scheme seems to have been assured; the venture expanded rapidly. The arrangements were extended to Scotland and Ireland in February 1862. By the end of that year business was being transacted at some 2,500 post offices. The number of depositors had grown to 180,000 and the balance due to them was £1.7 million. By 1870, the balance stood at £15 million (1,183,000 depositors) and during the remainder of the 19th century it roughly doubled every ten years until at the end of 1900 the liability to 8,440,000 depositors was £135.6 million. By that time savings business could be transacted at over 13,000 post offices.

Additional facilities were soon added. By 1880 it was possible to invest in Government Stock through a savings bank account and a few years later government annuity and insurance business was transferred to the Post Office Savings Bank. Before the turn of the century the public could deposit money orders and checks and to withdraw up to £10 by telegraph. The annual limit on deposits was raised to £50 and the aggregate limit to £200.

During World War I limits on deposits were suspended, and at the end of 1918 the balance due to depositors stood at £234.6 million. A number of changes and improved facilities were introduced between then and 1939 including withdrawal of the limit on nominations, a method of making regular periodic payments, the sale of National Savings Stamps for subsequent re-investment, and the payment of telephone accounts through a savings bank account. At the end of 1939 the balance was £551 million in 11,600,000 accounts. Business increased during the second world war and at the end of 1945 the balance stood at £1,754 million in 20,176,000 accounts.

At this time also the Post Office Savings Bank was made responsible

for the issue of war gratuities and post-war credits to personnel of the fighting and civil defense services. More than 6,600,000 savings bank accounts were opened for this purpose with initial credits amounting to almost £370.4 million. This very large scale operation had to be undertaken in addition to the Bank's ordinary business. The accounts were very active and the majority of them were short-lived.

In 1946, the Treasury, under the authority granted in the Savings Bank Act of 1920, reimposed an aggregate limit on deposits of £2,000. This has now been raised to £5,000. The first £15 of annual interest is free of income tax, though not of surtax. Withdrawal facilities are simple and convenient, and include the "crossed warrant" which can be used like a check and the withdrawal on demand at a post office of sums of up to £10. The latter facility is much used by depositors and there were 35 million such payments in 1959.

Besides dealing with the individual savings of 22 million people, the Bank caters to clubs and societies whose members save co-operatively for a variety of reasons. More than 16,000 of these organizations deposit millions of pounds yearly. The Christmas Clubs withdraw almost £8 million annually for distribution among their members, and £3 million is paid out to holiday clubs at the approach of the holiday season. The Bank also has a special department for the men and women serving in the armed Forces throughout the world.

The headquarters of the Post Office Savings Bank is located in West London. The centralization of records in London makes possible the deposit and withdrawal on a demand system. The post offices report daily to this headquarters the money they have received or paid out so that the entries may be made in the central records as soon as possible. Up-to-date methods are used to deal with this huge volume of business—a daily average of some 382,000 deposits and withdrawals. The Savings Bank first used calculating machines in 1910, and for many years machinery has been applied to the posting and balancing of depositors' accounts. Microfilm is now used to reduce the amount of storage space for essential records. It is the only Government Department with its own printing section, needed to handle the reams of printed material connected with its work.

The Savings Bank is only one activity of the Post Office Savings Department. It is also responsible for Savings Certificates, Premium Savings Bonds and Government Stocks and Bonds on the Post Office register. Altogether it looks after nearly £5,675 million of Britain's small savings—big business by any count.

*"The Youth Theater is not a school of acting. One of its main aims is to teach the discipline of the stage with the greatest emphasis on team rather than on individual performance . . . The fact that some very good actors have emerged and will continue to do so is of secondary importance. For the majority who will never take up acting as a career, the world of the Youth Theater is of even greater importance. It gives them confidence in movement and true appreciation of the living theater." (Sir Ralph Richardson officially opening the National Youth Theater, March 1961).*

## Britain's National Youth Theater

As amateurs in the professional theater, British teenagers are finding an outlet for pent-up energies and a "cause" for which they can work devotedly. They are boys and girls mostly of high school age, representing 55 schools all over Britain, brought together under the name of the National Youth Theater. Recently they have been getting a taste of the glamor of theatrical life in London's West End during the presentation of their latest production, Shakespeare's "Richard II." Leading London critics have praised the show for its "splendid vigor," and "variety of pace and movement and forthright clarity of speech."

How can untrained youngsters brought up with no theatrical career in mind be so integrated into dramatic projection that they can present Shakespeare with the inspiration and fire of full-grown troupers, and do it with some financial success?

The answer lies in a stocky, dynamic former English teacher from Manchester, Michael Croft. A graduate of Oxford, a lover of literature, Michael Croft early in his career showed a gift for leading students of high school age, arousing in them enthusiasm for the written word, both ancient and modern. While in his thirties, teaching at Alleyn's School, in London, he wrote a book on teaching called "Spare the Rod." He saved the money he made on it to put toward the fulfilment of his dream—a teenagers' theater.

He directed all the regular dramatic productions of the school, concentrating on Shakespeare as the medium best suited to bring out imaginative expression in young people. Almost at once his school productions were recognized as unusual, for he had the ability to kindle



tremendous enthusiasm in boys of the athletic type not normally drawn to acting. In fact, Croft shies away from the youth who is merely facile in dramatic ability and from the smooth academic student. When he worked on a show everyone concerned was made to feel like a V.I.P. "He made you feel as though you were very much an individual." "He showed he was interested in me as a person, and he aroused my interest in Shakespeare. Somehow, after that, my studies in other subjects improved." These are typical of the praise given to Michael Croft from his students at Alleyn's School.

In 1957 Croft decided to take the plunge. He hired Toynbee Hall in London for September to present what he called his Youth Theater, playing "Henry V." He succeeded in interesting the (London) *Daily Telegraph*, which generously donated \$1,400 toward the expenses. The vast majority of the cast of 100 was from Alleyn's School—a happy augury since the school itself had been founded by the famous actor Edward Alleyn, contemporary of Shakespeare. The show was a success, to the tune of \$1,700. This encouraged Croft to repeat the venture the following season with "Henry IV Part 2," following it up with a run in his home town, Manchester, at the University. Financially, both were flops. Croft himself had to pay for the losses out of the money he made on his book.

Nevertheless, he was approaching the original concept he had for the youth theater, a production which used students from many different schools. He was rewarded by recognition from the King George Jubilee Trust, which seeks to help youth groups "for welfare of the rising generation." The Trust made the Youth Theater an annual grant of \$1,400 for a period of three years. Croft was invited to the Edinburgh Festival to put on "Troilus and Cressida" with a cast of thirty-five. It meant extra prestige, but the group lost money and ended \$1,700 in the red.

The following year, 1959, was the crucial one. It started out auspiciously with an invitation to present "Hamlet" at Dartington Hall in the southwest of England, internationally famous boarding school and center for cultural study and the rural arts. The four performances were so well received that Leonard and Dorothy Elmhirst, the founders of Dartington Hall, urged Croft to take the production to London, overriding his half-hearted efforts at caution. The 1959 opening at the Queen's Theater in the heart of London's theater district proved a remarkable success. The *Times* applauded: "One wonders how it was done and wishes it were done more often." The group continued to play to nearly full houses until the profits rose to \$1,400. They then

moved, for fairly successful runs, to the Arts Theater, Cambridge, and the Lyric Theater, London.

This proved the turning point. News of the Youth Theater spread to Europe. It became the first non-professional group ever to be invited to the Theater des Nations in Paris. "It was Hamlet we went to see," said the critic of *Le Parisien Libere*, "and we saw it." "Hamlet" went to Holland, and an Amsterdam critic wrote of the production: "One of the most beautiful I have ever seen."

Everywhere there was astonishment that these could be just school-boys. By now they were recruited from schools from the north of England to the south, and Croft was able to wind up the season back at the Queen's Theater, London, with a production of "Julius Caesar" in modern dress with a cast of 107, including girls for the first time.

As the leader and director of a truly national theater, Michael Croft selects his casts and backstage workers with tireless care, spending as much time in personal interviews with each of the hundreds of applicants as he does in their auditions: The hopeful student, finding himself at ease from the start, is drawn out in conversation about an endless variety of topics, which perhaps explains Croft's uncanny knack of casting the right actor for a given part.

In his own words Croft's idea of the Youth Theater is that it should offer the boys and girls experience they normally miss at school, giving them confidence in facing life. Equally, he says, it gives them the opportunity to do something worthwhile, to occupy their leisure. Above all, it affords "the tough challenge of working as a team on big productions which have to face critical and sophisticated audiences. We look for a boy or girl who would not normally act at all but who would gain a lot from the disciplined team spirit of a Youth Theater production."

With the Youth Theater books balanced, the Ministry of Education agreed to back the company to the extent of nearly \$14,000 for its 1960-61 season at a permanent London headquarters, together with the promise of another \$8,000 for the following season. This was helped by another presentation from the King George Jubilee Trust of over \$4,000.

Now lodged at its new center in London, The National Youth Theater, following a tour of "Caesar" in modern dress through Italy, launched into its 1961 summer run at the Apollo Theater with "Richard II" which was followed by "Henry IV Part 2." "Henry" had an all-male cast, since, says Michael Croft, "boys can play these low-life female parts (the Hostess and Dolly Tearsheet) with much less inhibition than schoolgirls." In October, it represented Great Britain with the modern dress "Caesar" at the International Berlin Festival.

# New Nations & Development Issues —The British Contribution

## I BRITAIN'S COLONIAL RECORD

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## I

### Britain's Colonial Record\*

In welcoming his successor Mr. Reginald Maudling at the Colonial Office Mr. Macleod, former Colonial Secretary, said: “. . . I think that the development of British colonial policy over the years and the development of the British Colonial Territories are among the noblest chapters in our history.

Consider for a moment the facts. At the end of the last war, something like 630 million people lived in the dependent territories of the Crown. Now, that figure is about 40 million. Indeed, when this week started, the figure was 30 million . . .

Think, then, of that change from 630 million to 30 million and reflect that at the same time, over the same period, Russian imperialism has shackled 100 million men and women who once were free. And when

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\* Excerpt from the speech of the Right Honourable Iain Macleod, M.P. at Conservative Party Conference, October 11, 1961. Mr. Macleod relinquished the Colonial Secretaryship to become Leader of the House of Commons and Chairman of the Conservative Party.



you compare those two records, I hope you will share my indignation, which Lord Home touched upon this morning, that in international forums, in the United Nations itself, most of all in the countries where tyranny itself reigns, our British colonial record should be attacked . . .

In that record, so many people have shared: the Colonial Office, where I have been so finely served: overseas, the British Colonial Service working with a devotion beyond praise and almost beyond belief in the interests of those whom they served, although, in some cases, it may be that they are working themselves out of a job. Those to whom different speakers have referred in debate, who have gone from these Islands to build up the prosperity of these people—to all these people we owe much.

I think this debate is exactly on the right track. It acknowledges the necessity of advances for peoples in these territories and it asks us to do everything we possibly can to insure protection for the minorities.

How is this to be done? Do not, if I may say so, put too much faith just in paper guarantees. Independence to a country means what it says. It means that that country is independent, not just from the Colonial Secretary, but from this country as well. They are free and equal with us in the British Commonwealth of Nations. Therefore, although there is much to be said for entrenching property rights deeply in the constitution, although there is much to be said for human rights and Bills of Rights, although, above all, you should do everything you can to ensure an impartial judiciary, yet you must realize that the only final safeguard is the good will of the people who live in that country. This can be earned, and is being earned, and we must do everything we can to earn it.

It has fallen to me to be Colonial Secretary during two of the most tremendous years of advance that the world has ever seen. You must be in no doubt that you are watching one of the great dramas of history, as so many countries thrust forward through nationalism toward their independence. We in this country have always understood the emergence of nationalism. If we look at the problems of Africa today, which have concerned us so much in this short debate, it is easy enough to point to a country and say, "There in the Congo you can see what happens when there is inadequate preparation and you go too fast". I agree. The Congo was a failure of inadequate preparation. But you must also look round the map of Africa and look at Angola, Algiers and South Africa and see the tragedies that can come if you go too slow. Of course the Congo events went too fast. There are other places in Africa where they have gone too slow . . .

Now I should like to say this to the Conference. The tight rope of

timing which the Colonial Secretary has to walk in every territory every week, sometimes almost every day, is the most difficult of all his tasks—how you try to reconcile the emerging nationalism of these countries with the need for the surest possible protection for the minority. As you walk this tight rope, you must realize that if you fall from it it will bring disaster and perhaps bloodshed to so many people to whom you stand in a position of trustee.

How, then, do you go forward? On what moral principles should you base your policy, for be very sure that in this field, as in every other field, if your policies are not based on principle they will fail? I can only give you my own personal belief.

First, I believe in the rights and duties of men, and that means of all men. But do not ever fall into the error of assuming that, because you give a man better housing, because you give a man better education, because you improve the health services, somehow that will satisfy his craving for basic political rights. It cannot do. Indeed, it is bound to sharpen them.

Remember also that however great your services may have been to a country, however noble the contribution we have made in the five continents of the world to the developing countries has been—and it has been noble—they will never always be accepted as a reason why automatically you should govern . . . But yet there is a way. Let me remind you of something that I said at last year's Conference when I quoted the Prime Minister of Nigeria. He was referring to the British Colonial record in Nigeria. He said that we had been, first, masters, then leaders, and finally partners, but always friends. This is the answer—in partnership and in friendship. This can be done.

Secondly, I believe in what our grandfathers would have called the British Imperial mission. It is not yet completed. Since the world began, empires have grown and flourished and decayed, . . . but we are the only empire leaving behind us a coherent political scheme of development. We are the only people who, with all the hesitations and failures that there have been, are genuinely resolved on turning, to use Harold Macmillan's phrase, an empire into a commonwealth and a commonwealth into a family.

This is the last thing I shall say as Colonial Secretary. The third principle is that I believe quite simply in the brotherhood of man—of all races, of all colors, of all creeds. I think it is this that must be in the center of our thinking . . . If we are wise then indeed the task of bringing these countries toward their destiny of free and equal partners and friends with us in the Commonwealth of Nations can be a task as exciting, as inspiring and as noble as the creation of empire itself."

## II

### IN AFRICA:

## • Cooperative Societies

In those African territories which have been associated with Britain, industrial and agricultural cooperatives have been used for many years to promote economic and social development. Many of the features of cooperation—its voluntary management, simple organization, low running expenses and mutual confidence among members—have offered a basis for successful collective economic activity in fields often abandoned or left untouched by individual enterprise. As well as providing members with economic advantages, cooperative societies have played an important part in the education of their members in the practice of thrift and the arts of self-government.

The cooperative technique is adaptable for many purposes, but has been used in Africa mainly for the marketing of agricultural produce, the provision of rural credit and the distribution of consumer goods. Before 1939, the major part of cooperative development in Britain's African dependencies took place among the cocoa growers of West Africa and coffee growers of Tanganyika. Since 1946 there has been a general expansion. Cooperative departments have been established in the governments of most territories and no major territory is now without at least a nascent cooperative movement. Most of this development has been on the marketing side.

The expansion of African economic production in recent years has necessitated the establishment of an organized marketing system under government direction, but cooperative marketing societies have been formed to supplement the work of the government established marketing boards. Most of these marketing movements have assumed credit functions and there has been a tendency toward the evolution of multi-purpose societies which undertake credit, marketing and consumer activities. The independent African members of the Commonwealth—*Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone and Tanganyika* which obtained independence on December 9—have flourishing cooperative marketing movements whose foundations were laid during the days of British administration. Substantial progress has also been made in the development of co-operatives in the remaining dependent territories.

Cooperative marketing was originally introduced to African territories as a means of self-defense for producers against exploitation by



middlemen and monopoly interests. Marketing societies have in practice considerably expanded their scope, stabilizing commodity price levels, reducing transport and insurance costs, improving standards of cultivation and preparation for the market, purchasing farm requisites and providing seasonal credit to help producers over the period of production and sale. Seasonal finance and cash advances on the delivery of the crop have been met by overdrafts with commercial banks, backed where necessary by a government or marketing board guarantee. Co-operative processing has been encouraged in Tanganyika and Uganda by means of long-term loans by the Government to societies for the acquisition of processing plant and the provisions of managerial assistance by the Government or private concerns. The progress of marketing cooperatives has been particularly rapid in Tanganyika and Uganda where the statutory marketing boards have been willing to appoint them as agents and have assisted them to obtain short-term and long-term finance.

In *Tanganyika*, the turnover of the marketing movement in 1959 amounted to £11.5 million and accounted for a quarter of the territory's total exports: practically all African-grown mild coffee, a very high proportion of hard coffee, and nearly half the annually expanding cotton crop are marketed cooperatively. At the end of 1959 there were 603 marketing societies, with a total membership of 325,000 and reserves and surplus funds amounting to more than £2.6 million. Most of these societies are members of one or other of two country-wide marketing federations. The largest African cooperative enterprise in the territory, the Kilimanjaro Native Cooperative Union, which was formed by coffee growers in 1925, now has a membership approaching 30,000 and an annual turnover of £3 million.

In *Uganda*, there were 1,535 producers' marketing societies at the end of 1959, with a membership of nearly 188,000 and a turnover of £5.9 million: cooperative ginneries produced some 12 per cent of the territory's total production of cotton lint, and in the Bugisu area the marketing of the coffee crop has been wholly in cooperative hands since 1955.

In *Kenya*, the number and turnover of African producers' societies continue to increase. The large-scale European societies of pre-war foundation have now opened their membership to African societies, the majority of which handle coffee, vegetables and grain. In 1960 there were 11 European and mixed societies and unions which had a combined turnover exceeding £22 million.

The policy adopted by the British Government in 1946 assigned a large role to Government in the early development of cooperatives in

the dependencies. An Advisor on Cooperation was appointed to the Colonial Office in 1947, to correlate the work of the cooperative departments in the various territories, and an Advisory Committee on Cooperation in the Colonies was established, under ministerial chairmanship, to review the annual reports of the territorial registrars and cooperative departments and make recommendations for improving cooperative organization.

The basic function of the cooperative departments, which have been established or expanded since 1946, consists of the registration, audit, inspection and supervision of societies, the settling of disputes, liquidation, and the promotion or assessment of new ventures. Often it has been upon the Registrar and his staff that has fallen the burden of launching the societies and ensuring that they are properly run. Careful attention has been given to the selection and training of cooperative personnel. Training facilities for Registrars have been provided in Britain at the Plunkett Foundation and the Agricultural Economics Research Institute at Oxford, followed by visits to cooperative societies and institutions in Britain and, where possible, to a cooperative department in one of the dependencies. Since 1947 a special nine-month course has been held each year in Britain at the Cooperative College, Stanford Hill, Loughborough, for members of the staff of cooperative departments or employees of cooperative societies in the British dependencies. The course includes two main elements—studies at the College and visits to cooperative and other organizations in Britain. In addition, in most territories there are now arrangements for the training of junior staff locally or on a regional basis.

### *Community Development in Action*

In one Tanganyika village a meeting of village leaders elected a village committee which with the help of field staff from the Social Development Department drew up a list of specific targets which included a latrine and windows to every house, the rebuilding of wells, the building of a maternity and child welfare clinic, the planting of communal coffee and tree nurseries, the building of a cattle crush and the purchase of a village spray pump, the founding of a women's club and a literacy class. Each member of the committee accepted a specific responsibility and within three months nearly all these aims had been achieved. An "Achievement Day" with prizes for the healthiest baby and the cleanest house was timed for the same day as the opening of a new road in the making of which the villagers took part.

## IN AFRICA:

# •Community Development

Community development has been defined as “a movement designed to promote better living for the whole community, with the active participation and on the initiative of the community”. Linked with these two objectives is the principle that the people should carry out their own betterment schemes, led by their own leaders, mobilizing their own resources, and drawing on the assistance available to them from local and central government. Community development, adopted as policy by the governments of many of the remaining British dependencies, has been taken up or continued by the governments of independent member countries of the Commonwealth which were formerly dependencies.

The concept of community development came out of two informal conferences organized by the Colonial Office at Cambridge in the years immediately following the end of the second world war. It was agreed that the key to more rapid progress in the dependent territories of Africa lay in the initiative on the part of the people themselves and that “what the British administration must give to Africa and its people . . . . is a new inspiration”—to be sought in mass education or community development as it later became known.

In the next few years an increasing number of community projects were launched in all territories and governments experimented in organization and training. An advisory committee was set up in London to keep community development under constant review, and in 1954 a conference was held at Ashridge College, Hertfordshire, which was attended by over eighty men and women from thirty territories and from many different departments of government. Since then the consideration of the subject has been carried forward in a continuing series of conferences.

The work in progress is many-sided. It is concerned, for example, with the adoption of better methods of soil conservation, better methods of farming and better care of livestock; with health education in cleanliness, refuse disposal and the removal of obvious causes of water pollution; with literacy and the promotion of adult education; and with home and family improvements through courses in home economics. Other aspects of community development are the stimulation of village industries and trade, the construction of simple self-help housing, the encouragement of youth movements and the organization of recreational facilities. The most important end-result of successful community de-



velopment is, however, not the success of a project in itself, nor yet that there are more wells, schools, roads or new crops, important as these are, it is the creation of stable, self-reliant, progressive and responsible communities.

Although community development is mainly directed to the improvement of rural life, it also has a part to play in urban development and in particular in those towns which have grown rapidly in recent years and where the inhabitants have not yet had time to form a sense of belonging together. There has also been a general realization in recent years of the special need for community development work among women. There is an increasing demand from women in more primitive communities for teaching of such basic matters as nutrition, cleanliness, child care and simple home improvements. This is welcome. Formerly help of this sort was rejected. The policy is to enlist the services of the more advanced women—already organized into women's clubs—for help in organizing this teaching at village level.

For community work in her dependencies, Britain provides advisory services, a limited amount of financial assistance (community development is, or should be, largely self-financing) and training facilities for the leaders.

In the Colonial territories with a degree of internal self-government responsibility for community development is usually included among the responsibilities of one of the Ministers of State. There is a central community development organization, consisting of experienced community development officers, whose main responsibilities are stimulus and advice, the training of personnel, and coordination with the administrative and technical arms of Government. Local coordination is achieved usually through district teams. It is a function of community development to work with and through the local government authorities and to strengthen their development.

The specialist staff, in the persons of the Community Development Officers, are usually employed by the central government, although they may be seconded to the local authority. Uganda has 19 senior officers, 18 assistant officers and 164 junior staff on community development. In Kenya the central government provides 56 community development officers and over 500 community development assistants are found by local authorities.

The community development worker at the village level is carefully chosen and trained in a practical knowledge of the techniques of communication and working with groups. He lives with the community, finds out its special characteristics, problems and needs, discovers and

brings out latent leadership. Particular emphasis is placed on the part which women and the young can play.

In accordance with a recommendation of the Ashridge Conference in 1954 permanent training centers for local leaders and village workers have been established in Nyasaland, Uganda, Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and Tanganyika. There are also courses for women in such subjects as mother craft and home economics. The women's courses in Northern Rhodesia are especially popular and have produced results in cleaner houses, improved cooking and better child care.

The successful introduction of community development can be seen in former colonies such as Ghana which has since become independent as well as in territories which are still dependent. Some of these schemes should provide illuminating experience and examples for the Youth Corps and others who are discovering for the first time the immense tasks to be done in less developed lands.

In *Ghana*, for example, the movement has a long history and there has been notable progress as regard both literacy and community projects. Between 1952 and 1959, over 162,000 adults learned to read and write in their own languages by literacy campaigns. Ghana has over 4,000 village development committees and a total of 1,222 self help projects were completed by Technical Field Units during 1959, the projects ranging from road and school building to water and sewage schemes.

In *Kenya* it is estimated that about half a million people are actively involved in voluntary self-help group work. The self-help movement has played a great part in the restoration of the districts of Machakos, for example where soil erosion and land misuse was a serious problem. Each self-help group averages 100 men and women, who give two days a week of their own time to helping individual farmers or community projects such as dam building and anti-erosion measures.

In *Tanganyika*, which obtained independence on December 9, first priority is the mounting of a national campaign to eradicate illiteracy, with the cooperation of the Youth Organization of the Tanganyika African National Union. Plans are being prepared for mass literacy campaigns in all districts (in conjunction with classes in urban areas). A pilot effort was the Singida District Literacy campaign. The campaign began in 1958 and by November, 1959 there were 14,750 registered learners. It was followed up by a combined operations team consisting of officers of the agricultural, veterinary, medical and social development departments, supplemented by women staff trained in simple home improvements, which moves from village to village giving practical instruction and assistance.

### III

IN BRITAIN:

## • Overseas Development Institute

by

William Clark, Director

What is the dominant problem by which the 1960's will be remembered? Is it the Atomic Age, or the Space Age, or is it, after all, the Age of the New Countries?

There are many people who believe that behind all the huffing and puffing about East and West there is a more important division of the world which is North and South. In the North lies nearly all the developed, industrialized countries including both Russia and America; in the South lie the new, poor but developing countries, including the Indian sub-continent and most of Africa. The problem of how the rich and poor countries can co-exist, and how the enormous disparities between them can be reduced or at least prevented from increasing, may well prove to be the dominating item on the agenda for the sixties.

A group of people who believed this was so met in 1960 under the Chairmanship of Sir Leslie Rowan and decided to establish an Institute which would study the problems of the Development Era. An initial generous grant from the Ford Foundation was matched by British Industry (nearly 100 firms subscribed), and at the end of the year the Institute was ready for business.

When we began work I was appalled to discover the complexity of the issues, and by the way in which development problems were nearly always treated as a minor part of some other problem, such as exports, political relations in the Cold War, etc. One of the first papers we produced, which was circulated privately, recommended that the British system of aid should be rationalized under a single Department of State. A new ministry has in fact been established: the Department, Technical Cooperation.

After surveying this complex field for a period we came to the conclusion that the Institute could be most useful in the following ways:

(i) Acting as a catalyst in getting other agencies to turn their attention to problems of development. There are hundreds of official and unofficial groups in Britain which are concerned with the underde-



veloped world (this is part of the legacy of Empire); to duplicate their work would be wasteful and ungrateful. We have tried to get some of them to work together for common objectives, and we are still trying to provide a Directory which will show what facilities for aid are available—both governmentally and through the multiplicity of unofficial and voluntary organizations which are anxious to help the new countries.

(ii) Providing a forum where the issues of development can be discussed by representatives of all parts of the community, civil servants, politicians, businessmen, trades unionists, academics and all those with special knowledge of the subject or area. We also are paying particular attention to giving opportunity to people from the developing countries to use this forum to put their views across in this country. Their views often seem surprising and sometimes disappointing to British audiences, but we are working in the dark unless they are known not only to officials, but to the businessmen and teachers who are trying to co-operate with them.

(iii) Inquiry and research into problems of development—both the problems of what development is and how to achieve it with the maximum efficiency. We also are trying to get universities and individual students to undertake the more long-term and academic studies.

(iv) Information on development, which is desperately needed by firms and individuals wishing to take part in the process, and which is extremely difficult to discover. It also seemed that one of our proper functions was to stress the importance and urgency of the whole development process, both in terms of politics and economics.

Now after nearly a year of work we can begin to look back and see what we have achieved. Against the background of the development problem it seems very small indeed; against the background of our lack of experience and relatively small resources I feel that our David has made some impact on the Goliath of World Poverty—which will not however be slain by any single slingstone.

In acting as a catalyst we have tried to associate ourselves with the many organizations which are playing a part in development, even if it is only a small part of their activities. For instance we have tried to draw together agencies interested in overseas education, in missionary activities, in business and business training, in administration and in foreign affairs, in order to discuss the formidable problems which were revealed by the Ashby Report on Nigeria's future needs for trained manpower. In the same way we have held regular meetings here of those many groups which send young people overseas to help in developing countries, to try and increase the number sent, their variety and

skill. There are many other instances of occasions where we have helped to bring around a table people working in the same field for similar ends but without knowledge of each others' work. If I might venture a generalization, British administration owes much of its efficiency to the Committee system (with the Cabinet at the top) where conflicting and parallel interests are reconciled by open discussion; but far too often only differing *Governmental* interests are thus reconciled. The interests of business and trade, universities and professions only get aired when decisions have already been made. A private Institute with good relations in Government, Civil Service, industry and finance and the Universities can bring very important interests together in a most fruitful way.

This has been most apparent to us in some of the study groups which are still hammering out lines of policy on certain issues. Because of their special position senior civil servants are not usually listed as members of these groups but they are always present and have an opportunity of hearing at first hand the views of other sections of the community. One particularly interesting group has been working on the subject of "Aid by Trade to Africa," and considering the problems (which will be sharpened by any decision on Britain and the Common Market) that are arising as the result of Africa's desperate need to earn more foreign currency and spend less. We occasionally need to remind ourselves and the outside world that the aim of aid is to produce a healthy economic world community in which the various parts will trade with each other.

This problem of a balance of payments crisis is not unfamiliar to us in Britain, and another group that is meeting (with officials, economists, industrialists etc. attending) is considering how this country can give aid most effectively to the developing countries and with the least strain on our resources. Such tricky subjects as the export of surpluses, the loan of experts, and tied loans are being considered.

But in all of this we must never lose sight of the fact that we are trying to help the development of *people*—not just of countries—and that these people have very definite views of their own about how they want to develop. We cannot be successful in these aims unless we understand their views. How has the Institute helped in this direction?

Our main contribution this first year has been the Conference we held in New College, Oxford, at the end of August, in conjunction with the Council on World Tensions. The closed sessions were attended by nearly 80 people from every part of the world, but with the majority from developing countries. The Conference was held in private just because we wanted to ensure that these men with experience in developing their own countries could express freely their anxieties and difficul-

ties about the working of the partnership between those who give aid, and those who receive it.

It is not unjustified to ask if these talking marathons achieve anything comparable with the time spent by busy men away from their posts—we had about a dozen cabinet ministers from Africa and Asia, the heads of three U.N. Agencies, etc. We all felt at the end that it had helped in two ways:

- a certain clearing of the air about how far aid can possibly be completely free from strings, and how far private, profit-making investment is welcome alongside Governmental grants and loans;
- the very new African States had an opportunity to learn something from the experience of those states which have been engaged in economic development for longer—in particular India. Personally I feel that it is of the greatest importance that the lessons, learned so painfully in Asia, should not be lost to Africa, nor to us as suppliers of development aid.

The work of the Institute should be judged in the same practical way: does it really justify the time and money which is given to it? I would claim that it did on these counts:

1. It is the only body which is devoting itself to study of the problems involved in this colossal industrial and social revolution that is called Development. Our greatest usefulness I believe will be the detailed studies we are making of such subjects as “aid by trade in Africa”, “an international administrative and economic planning organization”, “aid and the balance of payments”, “training for Management”.

2. We can act as a bridge, or as an interpreter, between the industrialized, developed world and those seeking to get the knowledge on which development can be based. One practical example of our interpreter role is a series of pamphlets which we are just beginning on aspects of rural economy. The first in the series—on fertilizers—seeks to distill in about 20,000 words the vast amount of technical information that is available in libraries on the uses, costs, and manufacture of fertilizers. It is written to be of use to the sort of young civil servant or minister without technical training who finds himself forced to make planning decisions about his new country's agriculture.

3. We can act as a meeting place where those concerned with the developing world in business, finance, administration or teaching can meet each other and can meet representatives of those countries to discuss common problems. If one believes, that building a working partnership between these two worlds is the dominating problem of the sixties, then the value of those contacts and exchanges can hardly be exaggerated.



## *The Department of Technical Cooperation*

Britain's assistance to underdeveloped countries is now running at an annual rate of \$504 million. Without adequate supplies of trained men in the receiving countries, financial aid can easily be wasted. It has, therefore, been decided to set up a new government department—the Department of Technical Cooperation—to coordinate the various outlets through which technical aid has been channelled.

In particular, the new department, which opened its doors on July 24, 1961, is taking over the work in technical assistance previously performed by three overseas affairs departments—the Foreign Office, the Commonwealth Relations Office and the Colonial Office—and by the Ministry of Labour. It is hoped in this way to deal more effectively with requests for technical assistance received from governments of developing countries, inside and outside the Commonwealth. Commonwealth countries, both independent and dependent, are likely to continue to receive the major share of this type of assistance. In 1959-60 nearly 88 per cent of all British government aid went to the dependent territories of the Commonwealth.

The department's responsibilities will include the recruitment of staff for overseas service with overseas governments and international organizations; the handling of requests for technical assistance (including financing) from dependent territories, from independent Commonwealth and foreign countries, and from International agencies; the provision of specialist advice, and those aspects of Commonwealth educational cooperation which affect Britain. The Department will not be responsible for the provision of capital aid which will remain with the overseas departments concerned.

Britain has been a foremost contributor to technical assistance. It has long been a prime fact of Colonial Administration:

- Britain is the biggest single provider of experts and technicians under the various United Nations schemes.
- There are over 21,000 British men and women serving overseas in the Civil Services of less developed countries of the Commonwealth.
- There are over 47,500 students studying and training in Britain—most of them coming from countries in less developed areas of the world.
- Each year some 3,000 British teachers go to these areas.
- Under the Colombo Plan alone between 1951 and 1960 Britain extended \$398 million worth of capital aid to the less-developed countries of South and South-East Asia associated with the Plan.

IN BRITAIN:

## • The Overseas Visual Aid Center

*Telling the World in Pictures and Charts*

It is salutary in this complex and costly age to be reminded that helping the less developed countries can be simple and inexpensive. Even where the tasks are enormous the solution often calls for ingenuity rather than the lavish expenditure of money. For example, the cooperation of the people you are trying to help is absolutely essential; but it has been proved time and time again that our way of communicating—by word or picture—simply makes no sense to the people concerned. The power of intelligent observation has to be cultivated. How helpless—and indifferent—a people can be if they cannot understand what they see and hear! Spending money doesn't cure this problem, which lies behind so much of the apathy and indifference encountered.

In London an assault is being made on this business of simple communication; to discover the needs of the observationally blind and to find out how simply many of these needs can be supplied. At the Overseas Visual Aids Center, on a budget of only about £13,000 a year, they are helping perhaps fifty nations every year toward educational, industrial, agricultural and physical development simply by teaching the people in those countries how better to use their eyes.

In one of the early bulletins which the Center published soon after it opened three years ago, there are a number of examples of the kind of things it seeks to change in the world. They were recounted by a senior Health Education Officer in Africa, about the people whose health he cared for. The Health Officer had noticed that simple posters could not convey his health messages to these people, whose perception levels were low and whose comprehension was slow. If they could understand the pictures, the people often could not relate the words they carried.

He put up a poster saying "Kill all flies—they spread disease!", and the Africans asked "Why Kill Flies?" "How do they spread disease?"

He put up a poster with a picture of a Health Assistant and the words "This Man Is Your Friend." At the bottom of the picture he put the name and address of the local health assistant and wrote: "Ask Him To Help You," but the Africans looked at the picture and said: "We don't know this man; our Health Assistant has a beard!"

Trying to improve standards of hygiene the Health Officer put up a poster of a latrine, with part of the side cut away to show the internal

construction, and his people asked if they should build latrines with a hole in the wall.

The Visual Aids Center has been established to do what it can to remove this kind of inadequacy, which is holding back progress and growth in country after country right across the tropical and sub tropical areas of the globe.

The center is an independent agency with a Board of Governors, registered with the Board of Trade as a non-profit making company. It is mainly financed by the Government, and the Nuffield Trust. The center acquires students from every part of the world. The majority are sponsored by overseas governments, although overseas students studying at British universities attend the center during their holidays. Some large industrial firms with extensive overseas interests send their training staff. Missionaries train at the center. Its Director, Mr. G. H. Rusbridger, was formerly the Director of Education in Tanganyika. With a permanent staff of only three, he calls on the services of outside experts when necessary. In three years the Center has trained seven hundred people in the art of making and using, and caring for, audio-visual aids.

In Mr. Rusbridger's experience there are certain problems common to under-developed countries. They want to know how to produce more food from the same or even smaller acreages. They have problems of soil conservation, of crop rotation, and now of the maintenance of mechanical equipment such as tractors. They have common health problems, in particular the need to improve nutrition and to get a better-balanced diet. There is the problem of family planning, a subject which requires very delicate handling.

The center teaches the students to demonstrate, in simple ways which the people can understand, how to deal with these problems. It teaches them to impart their knowledge by making posters which can be properly understood, by making and using flannel graphs, which are simply pieces of soft flannelette or similar material stretched over boards, on which illustrations are drawn and to which other, mobile illustrations, on the back of which has been pasted glass paper or some other rough surface, will adhere. The students learn to use magnetic boards with the same function of illustrating their lessons with pictures which can be built up as they are explained.

They learn the simple use of stencils for printing, how to produce charts, maps and simple magazines. They learn to create their own exhibitions. They learn simple visual means of teaching English—again with the use of pictures. They learn too how to use film strips, how to care for photographic and other intricate and delicate equipment in



hot and humid climates. They learn how to use colors to teach effectively. They learn to use film projectors and tape recorders, and in some cases they are taught a little about television.

All these audio visual aids are on exhibit at the Center's headquarters, in a room which looks more like a hobby shop at Christmas time than what it really is—a unique source of help for people in other lands. In particular the display of puppets add a gayly colored Christmas air.

The puppets are an essential tool. In many countries they can be used to tell the people things which they would resent from officials. The students learn to make and to use the puppets. Miles Lee, formerly UNESCO specialist in India and now Director of the Mews Puppet Theatre in Edinburgh, confirms that such a use of puppets and drama in education community development work is arousing attention in many underdeveloped countries. Local habits, customs and allusions are easily incorporated in such teaching methods, and different languages and dialects in the same area can more easily be accommodated. And puppets are cheap.

The proper enunciation of spoken English is another problem. As the numbers of expatriate teachers decline in the developing countries, the opportunities for hearing a good standard of English spoken also diminish. The center is trying to meet this situation by telling its students how and where to get good recordings which illustrate proper pronunciation and intonation. This kind of instruction can also be achieved by the use of tape recorders to play back both the example and the student's own voice so that it is possible for students to hear their own shortcomings.

Last year alone the center received more than a thousand visitors from sixty five countries. Its students came from forty countries, and included agricultural extension workers, bank staff instructors, company executives, health educationists, missionaries, nursing sisters, overseas civil servants, social welfare workers, teachers, industrial training officers and veterinary surgeons. The most recent course at the center was attended by an agricultural supervisor from Nyasaland, a teacher from Teheran, another teacher from Madras, a student teacher from the Gambia, a co-operative superintendent from Sierra Leone, an organizer, a cocoa survey officer and a doctor from Nigeria, and two British theological students. But this is only a beginning. Many of the students trained at the center return to teacher training colleges in their own countries, where they have begun to pass on the techniques they learned in London.

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